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ABSTRACT

This paper considers what has kept textbooks around so long. The paper reviews changes in pedagogy and values manifested in nineteenth century textbooks to better understand the role of textbooks in the classroom. It suggests that textbooks are a highly adaptable literary genre (with always changing writing styles), concluding that as classroom problems change, so do textbooks to help resolve them. Contains 29 references; various examples of textbook pages are attached. (Author/NKA)

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A Brief History of Textbooks:
Where Have We Been All These Years?

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Abstract

What has kept textbooks around so long? This paper reviews changes in pedagogy and values manifested in nineteenth century textbooks to better understand the role of textbooks in the classroom. The review suggests that textbooks are a highly adaptable literary genre. As classroom problems change, so do textbooks to help resolve them.

A Brief History of Textbooks: Where Have We Been All These Years?[1]

This brief review of the history of textbooks begins with a prediction about their future in education. The prediction is not mine, but that of Judith Whitley, a ninth-grade English teacher in Ironwood, Michigan. Basing her opinion on her experience with a "workshop approach" to teaching reading and writing, which to many educators represents the antithesis of a "textbook approach," she concluded that "the textbook need not be considered a dinosaur in this age of the student-centered, electronic classroom. It remains a vital part of student learning and will continue to be so into the 21st century" (Whitley, 1998, p. 15). My question is, what about her teaching situation led her to this conclusion? More generally, what has kept textbooks around so long, and what will keep them around in the twenty-first century?

The methodology that I will use to pursue this inquiry is problem based, that is, educational practices will be assumed to be "activities that solve problems about what to do in particular situations" (Robinson, 1998). Classroom activities are understood to represent strategic solutions to teaching problems which arise in particular situations. Judith Whitley's classroom represents such a particular situation, as does every classroom. Since textbooks have been and continue to be an integral part of learning activities in particular situations such as Judith Whitley's classroom, they represent partial solutions to teaching

problems. By examining textbooks, and the way that teachers have used them, we can make inferences about the educational problems which not only gave rise to textbooks, but which have spurred their development. The end of such an inquiry is a better understanding of the educational role of textbooks in the past, present and future.

Questions in Textbooks

Textbooks developed out of the need to teach reading and writing to children who had learned to read and write the Latin alphabet, syllables, and even words, but who were not yet ready to read extended passages. Long before they were called textbooks, the first schoolbooks were probably a mixture of grammatical rules and popular maxims designed to lead to literacy. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the word textbook did not have its modern meaning until the end of the eighteenth century, when such books were commonly in the hands of students as well as teachers.

What is important to note in the earliest textbooks is their literary origin. They were designed to lead to literacy. Their style tells us how they were used. One very popular style--apparently invented by Aelius Donatus in the fourth century A.D.--was question and answer in the form of a catechism. A teacher would read a question and the students would recite the answer, both of which were found in the text. The catechetical style of writing was not limited to the medieval period, as evidenced by grammars well into the nineteenth century. Noah Webster (1758-

1843) was perhaps America's most successful author of the last half of the eighteenth century. Part II of Webster's (1783) Grammatical institute of the English language couched all of its definitions in question and answer format:

> What is Grammar?
>
> Grammar is the art of communicating thoughts by words with propriety and dispatch.
>
> What is the use of English Grammar?
>
> To teach the true principles and idioms of the English language.

The popularity of the catechetical style was attested to by the popularity of the textbooks written in it. Webster's grammar, although not as popular as his blue-backed speller, was published in multiple editions. Webster (1831) abandoned the catechetical style, however, in a thorough revision almost fifty years later.

The question and answer format was very popular in the schoolbooks of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The schoolmaster's assistant by Thomas Dilworth (1773/1805) was an English arithmetic textbook that went through at least 58 American printings. Its title page indicates that the contents were to be "delivered in the most familiar way of Question and Answer," a reference to the catechetical style (see Figure 1). In her landmark study of textbooks in nineteenth century American classroom, Ruth Elson (1964) concluded that many of the textbooks of that era were written wholly as catechisms.

What purpose did the catechetical style serve from the

fourth century A.D. until well into the nineteenth century? In his History of education, James Bowen (1975, p. 408) answers in terms of the classroom situation:

> Both Donatus' grammar, composed in the fourth century A.D., and Alexander's of 1199 were designed for the minimum classroom, that is, one consisting of the barest elements: a master reading or expounding to pupils seated on forms, with no further necessary equipment such as a blackboard or writing equipment--desks, pens, ink and paper.

The pedagogical goal or problem for at least a thousand years was memorization of definitions, rules or other facts, and its attainment was facilitated by a text which contained cues for recall such as recited questions and answers or (in the case of Alexander's grammar) rhymes.

What sustained the catechetical style into the nineteenth century, however, was probably not the absence of books, desks, paper or pens, but a lack of trained teachers. The lack of trained teachers was itself due to an absence of efficient means of training (Carpenter, 1963). Elson (1964, p. 8) made the connection between lack of teacher education in the early eighteenth century and the catechetical style:

> Because the teachers were relatively untrained, letter-perfect memorization without peculiar attention to meaning was the basic method of common, or public, school education. Few teachers outside of the large cities had much education beyond that of the schools in which they were taught.

If the goal were memorization, the catechetical style eliminated the need for either pedagogical knowledge or subject knowledge on the part of the teacher. The voice of the teacher and the textbook author were not only in agreement, they were the same!

Not surprisingly, the role of the teacher was often reduced to that of an advanced student. Elson (1964, p. 9) continued:

> In many classrooms the memorization technique was reinforced by the monitorial system, whereby older students were designated to hear the recitations of younger ones. It was a method attractive to taxpayers, since one teacher with the aid of monitors could handle an enormous class of many grades. But the monitor could only be trusted to see whether the student's memorization of the schoolbook was letter perfect. Questions given as teaching aids in the books themselves clearly expect this method. The typical form of a question is: 'What is said of . . . ?'

The monitorial system of the nineteenth century required little more of the teacher than to support the monitors and keep a watchful eye for misbehavior. John Swett, author of a popular reading series at the turn of the century, noted that the "main office" of the teacher in the early common school was "to ask the text-book questions without note, comment, or explanation" (1900, pp. 189-90). The core teaching goal--memorization of answers--could be achieved without a well-trained teacher if the textbook served as a substitute source of both information and pedagogy.

What changed the core teaching goal from memorization to

understanding in the 1840s? There were at least three causes: a change in educational theory, the rise of teacher education, and the commercialization of textbooks. First, educational theory had been undermining the traditional, deductive approach to education since the Renaissance. Johann Pestalozzi (1746-1827), and before him John Amos Comenius (1592-1670), had advocated pedagogical use of the ideas and experience of the child in what has become known as "object teaching" (Urban, 1990).

The first American textbook to use object teaching was First lessons in arithmetic on the plan of Pestalozzi by Warren Colburn (1821), a founder of the American Institute for Instruction, which promoted Pestalozzi's ideas. A sense of number was developed through questions related to objects in the experience of the child:

1. How many thumbs have you on your right hand? how many on your left? how many on both together?
2. How many hands have you?
3. If you have two nuts in one hand, and one in the other, how many have you in both?

This textbook was so popular that despite the early death of its author, it remained in print for 70 years, with three successive copyrights obtained by Colburn's widow, and the last by his daughter.

Educational publications and organizations at mid-century widely advocated the Pestalozzian approach, but their influence on classroom situations was limited because it was indirect.

Journals and organizations can promote educational ideas, but teachers must implement them. A second cause of change in the teaching goal was training of teachers in object teaching. The common school movement swept through the nation in the mid-nineteenth century to provide schools that were free, universal, and tax supported. Beginning in 1839, normal schools developed to provide large numbers of teachers needed by common schools. By 1898, there were 127 public normal schools, and approximately the same number of private ones, accounting for about one-fourth of new teachers (Tyack, 1967). The Pestalozzian approach was widely taught in them (Urban, 1990), and their faculty joined the ranks of elementary and high school textbook authors in increasing numbers (Richey, 1931).

A third cause of the change in teaching goal from memorization to understanding was, somewhat surprisingly, the perception of the textbook as a commodity, or an article of commerce. The appeal to sensory experience, which formed the basis for the "new" approach to teaching, also provided visual appeal to adults and easy access to subject matter for parents and adoption committees. Noah Webster's (1783) famous speller, which eventually sold over 100 million copies, started with a single woodcut illustration. By 1831, it had eight woodcuts, and by 1880, thirteen engravings. The history and geography textbooks of Samuel Goodrich (1793-1860), which he published himself, were "festooned" with woodcuts and eventually with engravings, primarily to increase sales (Perkinson, 1985). Seven million

copies of Goodrich's textbooks were sold between 1830 and 1860 (Palmer, Smith & Davis, 1988). There is little doubt that the change in the goal of education from memorization to understanding was due in part to changes in textbooks to enhance their marketability.

One significant implication of the change in the educational goal which occurred was change in the kinds of questions found in textbooks. As memorization gave way to understanding as a teaching goal, the nature of questions asked in textbooks began to change. After 1840, some textbooks blended student experience with the catechetical style of questioning. Other textbooks, such as A pictorial history of the United States by Samuel Goodrich (1846) relegated questions to the bottom of the page. These questions called for interpretation as often as recitation of a fact from the exposition. The catechetical style slowly lost its grip on textbooks and, by implication, on classroom activities. "In all subject matter," one educational historian concluded, "the old catechetical questions common to earlier textbooks gave way after the 1840s to inductive questions" (Perkinson, 1985, p. xii).

The change was slow, because the teaching problem was slow to change. Classrooms were not always well supplied, and teachers were not always well educated in either pedagogy or subject matter. Indeed, echoes of catechetical questions can be found today in teaching methods and materials adopted with enthusiasm whenever classroom situations arise similar to those prior to the

1840s. They can be found in direct instruction and programmed learning materials developed in the 1960s and in use in some situations today.[2] The reinvigorated use such methods today verifies that catechetical practices are a solution to a teaching problem which occasionally resurfaces.

Despite occasional revivals of the catechetical style, textbook questioning was largely and permanently transformed in the mid-nineteenth century to address another teaching problem, that of developing understanding. Today, we often see textbook lessons coordinated with object teaching, and inductive questions and exercises mixed with exposition. Such questions usually call for inferences to be made either from direct experience or what has been vicariously experienced in the form of narration, illustration, or example. There is no doubt that the change in textbook questions which occurred in the middle of the nineteenth century facilitated the survival of the textbook into the twentieth century. Questioning was not discarded, but proved as versatile as other components of textbooks in addressing a new teaching problem. Later, we shall return to the subject of textbook questioning for what it has to tell us about relatively recent changes in the core teaching problem, but for now, it is sufficient to conclude that textbook questions have evolved in the past to address core teaching problems, as well as develop subject matter knowledge.

Instruction in Values

The values asserted through the content and illustrations of

textbooks prior to 1840 were often religious. Developing literacy, for example, was not an end in itself, but was widely perceived as a means to facilitate reading the Bible. Consequently, the New England primer, which first appeared in the late 1600s, taught reading through instruction that was also religious. The first extant copy is from 1727 and contains several pages of letters and syllables before introducing alphabetic rhymes illustrated by woodcuts (see Figure 2). The content is almost exclusively religious. The remaining content of early editions was also religious, including questions about Bible content, biblical verses arranged alphabetically, prayers, a creed, biblical names, and a Puritan catechism (Nietz, 1961).

During the nineteenth century, however, religious values manifest in the content of reading textbooks slowly gave way to more general moral values. The alphabet rhymes and illustrations of the New England primer, for example, transformed in content through numerous subsequent editions until by the nineteenth century, they became completely secular (Carpenter, 1963). The influence of this change was not small. In all, the New England primer sold between 6 and 8 million copies.

Part I of Webster's (1783) Grammatical institute of the English language, which became popularized as the American spelling book (1784), went through a similar transformation. It contained "A Moral Catechism" in its section on pronunciation, presumably a substitute for the Puritan catechism in the New England primer (Nietz, 1961). The origin and end of Webster's

catechism were clearly religious (see Figure 3). When Webster (1829) revised his speller to become the Elementary spelling book, however, he left the catechism out, although seven morally pointed fables, which were introductory reading lessons in the main body of the book, remained.

The content of readers also transformed during the nineteenth century. William Holmes McGuffey's series originally consisted of four readers published in 1836 and 1837. A fifth reader, written by his brother Alexander, was published in 1844, and the sixth in 1857. The readers went through many subsequent editions over the next 70 years, eventually selling over 122 million copies, even more than Webster's blue-backed speller. The extreme popularity and longevity of McGuffey's readers make them ideal for following changes in teaching problems from 1836 on.[3]

The Eclectic first reader (1836), for example, consisted of 45 lessons, one of which made reference to religion in its title ("Evening Prayer"). Titles were deceptive, however, because religious instruction occurred through lessons designed to lead the reader to belief. "The Sun is Up," which was the tenth lesson, had a secular beginning, but in the ninth sentence, the narrator asked, "Do you know who made the sun?" The narrator answered, "God made it." The rest of the lesson described what the child should know about God, most of it in the first person. The lesson had the form of a religious meditation, as did a number of other lessons (e.g., "The Thick Shade," "John Jones," "Don't Take Strong Drink"). Lessons were clearly designed to

teach religious beliefs as well as develop reading skills.

What is striking about the differences between early and later editions of the first reader is the absence of religious instruction in the later editions. By 1900, revisions had almost ceased to what was now known as the First eclectic reader but so had references to Deity. In the 1920 edition, only two lessons had any religious content, and that was embedded in poems to be copied as slatework. There were no references to religion in the reading passages.

Religion was replaced by moralism. Many, but not all reading lessons presented variations on a single theme--exemplars of kindness. A surprising number of these lessons were directed to boys. McGuffey's First eclectic reader contained stories that depicted someone persuading a boy not to disturb a nest, not to pull a cow out of a pond, to stay out of a pond (ponds must have been quite an attraction), and to respect someone else's wishes. The general message--be kind to other people and to animals--was explicit on the last page:

> Your parents are very kind to send you to school. If you are good, and if you try to learn, your teacher will love you, and you will please your parents.
>
> Be kind to all, and do not waste your time in school.

School, we must remind ourselves, was not compulsory, and often meant fewer hands to do the work at home. Many parents were being kind to send their children to school. Nevertheless, kindness was not portrayed as a religious value but as a moral value. The idea

that the teacher would "love" the pupil only if the pupil worked was a manifestation of kindness as conditional upon another value, industry.

The approach to teaching kindness was inductive, that is, through example. The audience was not limited to boys, but boys came in for more than their fair share of admonition. This observation suggests lessons were designed as partial solutions to the classroom problem of self-discipline.

The McGuffey readers were not alone in their promotion of self-discipline among boys. In the East, the reading series by Charles Sanders rivalled the popularity of that by McGuffey (Nietz, 1961). An illustration from Sanders' union primer (1870) shows a dog which has been blindfolded snapping at some kittens, an angry mother cat, and a smiling boy holding hands with a distressed girl in the background (see Figure 4). The lesson is a portrait of mischief, and the advice to the boy is to unblindfold the dog because "the cats do not like the fun as well as you." Moral lessons in these books were often directed to boys, with suggestions to be kind to others, especially animals.

As religious values gave way to moral values, a national character began to emerge. By midcentury, history texts became filled with character portraits that illustrated this set of moral values. It was the obligation of a citizen to be good, not just to obey the laws of the land. This peculiar combination of values led to some strange distortions of history. These distortions are common in the textbooks of Samuel Goodrich, who

often wrote under the pseudonym of Peter Parley, supposedly an aging storyteller.[4]

His books spoke to children, but they simplified history and interjected moral judgments a great deal in the process. In the Pictorial history of the United States (1846), we learn of his judgments of early European settlers in America. Goodrich introduced the Puritans as "an excellent people, but somewhat peculiar in their opinions and habits" (p. 42). Goodrich was the son of a Puritan minister, and understood how the word peculiar could be complimentary. "The Dutch, in the United States, with the best soil," however, "accomplished less than the emigrants of any other nation" (p. 82). As for the Spanish, he concluded (p. 353):

> Spain, the greedy spoiler, who obtained possession of nearly the whole of South America and the finest portions of North America, has not now an inch of territory upon either. When she discovered the New World, she was a great, powerful and energetic nation, taking a lead in arts and arms. Glutted with conquest and treasure, she became feeble and effeminate, and sank into a state of indolence, ignorance and indifference.

Goodrich not only criticized the state of the Spainish nation, he implicitly contrasted it with his vision of what an American should be. The Puritans were highly regarded, however, because they were perceived to possess values congruent with his general conception of the American character: righteous, industrious and

(unwittingly) anglocentric (Hooper & Smith, 1993).

The treatment of heros and villains in Goodrich's book provides even more particular insight into what Goodrich considered the American character. Historical figures whom he regarded as "heros" included William Penn ("one of the truly great men of the earth"), who is noted for his principled and peaceable nature. He was pictured in an open stance with a peaceful expression (see Figure 5a). Goodrich portrayed George Washington as an icon of virtue. We learn that Washington had "received no other education than that of the family and the common school," and that "his mind at school had taken quite a mathematical turn," but "he was most distinguished for his excellent moral character. In this respect few young men of his time stood higher" (p. 120). We learn how students were to interpret this: "His passions were indeed strong, but he strove to govern and subdue them." Washington was depicted no less than four times, always calm (see Figure 5b).

Characters regarded as "villains" included James Oglethorpe, the early leader of Georgia, and Benedict Arnold. Goodrich condemned Oglethorpe for his "passion of conquest, or at least for power" in his failed invasion of Florida (p. 109). Oglethorpe was depicted with a deep frown (see Figure 6a). Goodrich condemned Benedict Arnold for treason from a very young age. His father was a man "of doubtful integrity; though he had a good mother" (p. 222): "While yet a lad, he was apprenticed to a firm of druggists, in Norwich: but he ran away several times during

his apprenticeship, besides being, in other ways, a source of perpetual trouble to his friends." Son of a dishonest father, Arnold was also cast as a disobedient apprentice and both a troubling and troubled friend--no trace of virtue in him, despite his Revolutionary War victories chronicled in earlier pages.

Like Oglethorpe, Arnold was also depicted with a deep frown (see Figure 6b). The character portrait of young Benedict Arnold tells us much of what a moral character was to be by what it was not (p. 222):

> Everything pertaining to this early period of his life indicated a want, in him, of conscientiousness--cruelty, ill-temper, and recklessness with regard to the good or ill opinion of others. Robbing birds' nests, maiming and mangling young birds, to draw forth cries from the old ones, vexing children and calling them hard names, and even beating them, were among his frequent, if not daily pastimes.

Goodrich's vilification of Benedict Arnold tells us to look for the morality of the American character in the opposite of what was described: Conscientiousness, even temper, concern for the opinion of others, and kindness to animals and children.

The development of what textbook authors perceived to be the American character was a widely shared goal by the mid-nineteenth century. It displaced an earlier goal which was more closely related to religious commitment. What caused the change in educational goals? There is some evidence to suggest that it was

partly caused by a change in approach to discipline, partly by increasing learner diversity and regional disunion, and partly by the emergence of a national textbook market.

The teaching problem in the classroom situation was the development of morality in its practical aspect, which was self-discipline. The early approach to self-discipline, which is well illustrated by the New England primer, assumed that self-discipline could be established through habituation. Habit was to self-discipline what memorization was to learning. Students were expected to become what they did over and over, just as they were expected to learn what they said over and over. We see the descendants of this approach to self-discipline today whenever children are regularly rewarded for attendance or punctuality, or are required to write corrective sentences as punishment for the infraction of some rule. Habituation was well-established in colonial educational theory and practice as the way to develop character (Bowen, 1981).

By mid-nineteenth century, however, the influence of a new approach to learning led to the developing of morality through example. Consequently, fables in spellers and examples of kindness in readers became sources of moral instruction. The moral of each story was made explicit at the end. Similarly, the character portraits in history books stressed the self-control of heros (such as William Penn and George Washington) and the lack of self-control of villains (such as James Oglethorpe and Benedict Arnold). The inductive approach to character education

survives today, but more often in educational materials marketed to parents rather than to schools.[5]

Although the inductive approach to character education was popular, in itself, it could not specify what the core characteristics should be. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, there was not a widely acknowledged "American" character (Elson, 1964). This character had to emerge in relation to problems fostered by tensions in national development, such as immigration and regionalism. Immigration between 1830 and 1850, for example, was ten times that of the first three decades of the nineteenth century, many of the new citizens German Lutherans or Irish Catholics. The common school movement further led to the inclusion of many children in school who were from highly diverse backgrounds. Standardized textbooks were viewed as one means to develop shared characteristics among all children. These characteristics generally represented moral values (such as kindness, industry, and conscientiousness) rather than values specific to any one religion.

Along with the need to enculturate students from diverse background was the increasing threat of regional disunity. At the Hartford Convention of 1814, New England states did not rebel against the federal government, but of course, 47 years later, the Southern states did. Sectionalism was noticeably absent from the content of most textbooks prior to the Civil War (Elson, 1964). In 1846, Goodrich welcomed Arkansas (which was admitted in 1836) with almost the same enthusiastic prediction as Michigan

(which was admitted in 1837). Elson (1964) noted that "from the 1830's to the Civil War there is much evidence of a new fear of disunion in the increased number of selections in the Readers on the importance of union" (p. 294). Among other things, an American character was crafted in order to promote national unity.

A third major cause of the development of a portrait of the American character in textbooks was the emergence of the mass textbook market. A few books were written to appeal to a particular region, but more often, controversial subjects were either balanced or edited out. The American Book Company of New York, Cincinnati and Chicago advertised its Webster speller as "the cheapest, the best, and the most extensively used spelling book ever published." It was also one of the most profitable because its content was both standard and noncontroversial.

As an illustration of the power of the mass market over content, we can analyze the final words read by the child in McGuffey's First eclectic reader (see Figure 7). "When you go home," the narrator told the child, "you may ask your parents to get you a Second Reader." These final words were clearly a promotion in more than one sense. A child reading them might take pride in being promoted to the next book, but the capitalization of "Second Reader" also tells us that the final words promoted the next book in the series. The author of these words was not McGuffey, who did not participate in later revisions, but a representative of the publisher. The words encouraged an American

child to ask an American parent to buy another book from the American Book Company. This sales strategy, among others, was successful. By 1870, the American Book Company was the largest textbook company in the world (Perkinson, 1985).

The Future of the Textbook

If times have changed since the nineteenth century, and textbooks are no longer filled with inductive questions and moralizing content, what do nineteenth century textbooks have to tell us about textbooks today and in the future? I think that the history of textbooks tells us why, in Judith Whitley's words, the textbook "remains a vital part of student learning and will continue to be so into the 21st century."

Since their inception, textbooks have helped teachers solve complex teaching problems posed by classroom situations. As the situations and problems have changed, so have textbooks. In themselves, textbooks have not resolved these problems, but they have been written, edited and marketed as teaching and learning aids. They represent a genre of writing that through a combination of practical use and market forces must respond to a particular kind of situation. As long as that situation remains complex and problematic, teachers will need assistance in developing solutions. Market forces assure that textbooks will represent such assistance.

When viewed as partial solutions to problems posed by classroom situations, rather than as constraints on teaching, textbooks often become quite helpful. Judith Whitley (1998, p.

15) made this discovery and admitted that

> Until recently, I have felt the need to whisper the T-word. Now it is in print. My classroom practice of blending both the workshop methodology with the integrated language arts textbook has resulted in successful student outcomes convincing enough to shout about.

The language arts textbooks helped her meet her goals, which included outcomes assessed by the State of Michigan. Her goals were not limited to scores on standardized tests, but she found the textbook supported her efforts to resolve a complex problem posed by her situation.

If I were to make any long-term prediction about textbooks, it would be their continued reform and rediscovery. At least since the 1930s, educators have investigated the hypothesis that teachers are enormously constrained in their teaching by the textbook (Bagley, 1931; Stodolsky, 1989). What they have found is that those teachers who are most constrained are least knowledgeable. Experienced teachers vary in the extent to which they use textbooks, but their experience teaches them to use the textbook as a tool of instruction rather than an object of instruction. It would be as senseless to cast away a textbook once one learned how to use it as it would be to cast away a tool once one learned how to build with it.

Textbooks, like tools, are in the main constructed for use by many people rather than by just a few. The classroom problems that they address are slow to change, but like a mighty river,

they are also both wide and deep. The obvious question we must ask is, are such changes in progress now? The answer is yes, if for no other reason than they have always been in progress. What is difficult to discern is the nature, or character, of the change at its leading edge. Presently, buzz words such as "the information age, "the cognitive revolution," "cultural diversity" and "constructivism" keep resurfacing, but does any of them capture the character of the broad change under way in American classrooms?

In my view, the significant classroom problem that will be posed in the near future by broad and deep change in American society is information management. How will we teach children to seek out and sort through all of the information that will be available to them for what they need, and to process what they need in a way that leads them to achieve socially constructive goals? This question, in one way or another, is beginning to affect the composition, editing, and evaluation of textbooks.

Questions in textbooks provide examples of the increasing emphasis on information management. For the last two decades, some textbook questions have preceded each chapter, functioning to focus the attention of the reader. At the beginning of the 1990s, end of chapter questions in readers and other texts became "inferential" or "higher-order," helping students to process information more deeply (Wakefield, 1997). Increasingly, students at the beginning of the twenty-first century will need to learn how to manage information--how to find it, evaluate it,

reconfigure it and even create it--to use profitably all of the information sources that will be accessible to them.

Information management as a goal at the beginning of the twenty-first century will imply that teachers should develop self-discipline among students through reasoning. Although older methods of discipline will still be around, increasingly textbooks will begin to reflect new methods of self-mangement including participation in student-led group projects, discussion of divergent points of view on issues related to subject matter, and goal setting or problem solving sessions with other students, the teacher, or both. Such strategies are beginning to find their way into textbooks now, often in the pedagogy as well as in the content. Techniques to develop self-management are becoming coordinated with techniques to develop information mangement skills.

Currently, publishers are seeking ways to "plug in" to the electronic classroom, providing software, web sites and internet addresses for use by students, often in conjunction with textbooks. An increasing number of teachers, like Judith Whitley, are perceiving the textbook not as the sole information source, but at the hub of several information resources. We can be assured that the need to teach students how to manage all of the information accessible to them will nudge textbooks on their evolutionary path well into the next century, even if we are not certain just where that path will lead.

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Footnotes

[1]Good collections of early American textbooks are rare. The best collections of early American textbooks are in the Houghton Library of Harvard University and the newly organized National Library of Education (NLE). A partial catalog of the early American textbook collection of the NLE (555 New Jersey Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20208-5721) is available from the Government Printing Office (see Perkinson, 1985).

[2]Writing in May, 1998 about an elementary school in a poor, mostly black neighborhood of Houston, Associated Press reporter Robert Greene stated that the "tightly scripted teaching method known as direct instruction, . . . developed during the War on Poverty of the late 1960s but largely abandoned a short time later, has been revised and spread to lagging schools in Baltimore, Chicago, Broward County, Fla., and parts of Utah."

[3]Although his readers sold extremely well, McGuffey did not profit much financially. In his contract, royalties over 1,000 dollars reverted to the publishers. In 1838, McGuffey and his publishers were sued for plagiarism, forcing early revision of the first two readers (Venezky, 1987). Presumably, the publishers paid the out-of-court settlement of 2,000 dollars, so the author did not actually suffer financial loss.

The annotated McGuffey (Lindberg, 1976) contains an interesting account of McGuffey's career as school teacher, college administrator and scholar.

[4]Goodrich was both author and publisher of over 100 books

for children. The literary circle in New England was small in the mid-nineteenth century. Goodrich's cousin was the niece of Noah Webster, and Nathaniel Hawthorne one of the writers whom Goodrich occasionally hired. Hawthorne was the primary author of Peter Parley's Universal History on the Basis of Geography, but Goodrich paid him only 100 dollars for his efforts (Smith & Vining, 1991).

[5]A current example of the inductive approach to character education is the reading series which has developed from The book of virtues by William J. Bennett. To my knowledge, however, the individual books are not gradated. They are marketed as trade books rather than as textbooks.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Title page from The schoolmaster's assistant by Thomas Dilworth).

Figure 2. Illustrated rhymes to teach the alphabet from an early edition of the New England primer.

Figure 3. The first page of "A Moral Catechism" in Webster's American spelling book.

Figure 4. An example of moralizing content from Sanders' union primer.

Figures 5a and 5b. Portraits of William Penn and George Washington in Goodrich's Pictorial history of the United States.

Figures 6a and 6b. Portraits of James Oglethorpe and Benedict Arnold in Goodrich's Pictorial history of the United States.

Figure 7. The last page from McGuffey's First eclectic reader.

THE

SCHOOLMASTER'S

ASSISTANT,

BEING A

COMPENDIUM OF ARITHMETIC,

BOTH

PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL.

In Five Parts.

CONTAINING,

I. Arithmetic in whole Numbers, where... the common Rules, having each of them a sufficient Number of Questions, with their answers, are methodically and briefly handled.

II. Vulgar Fractions, wherein several Things not commonly met with, are accurately treated of, and laid down in the most plain and easy manner.

III. Decimals, in which, among other Things are considered the Extraction of Roots; Interest both simple and compound; Annuities, Rebate, and Equation of Payments.

IV. A large collection of Questions with their Answers, serving to exercise the foregoing Rules, together with a few others both pleasant and diverting.

V. Duodecimals, commonly called Cross Multiplication; wherein that part of Arithmetic is thoroughly considered, and rendered very plain and easy, together with the Method of proving all the foregoing Operations at once, by Division of several Denominations, without Reducing them into the lowest Terms mentioned.

The Whole being delivered in the most familiar way of Question and Answer, is recommended by several eminent Mathematicians, Accomptants, and Schoolmasters, as necessary to be used in Schools by all Teachers, who would have their Scholars thoroughly understand, and make a quick progress in Arithmetic.

To which is prefixt,

AN ESSAY

ON THE EDUCATION OF YOUTH;

Humbly offered to the consideration of

PARENTS.

By THOMAS DILWORTH,

AUTHOR OF THE NEW GUIDE TO THE ENGLISH TONGUE YOUNG BOOK-KEEPER'S ASSISTANT, &c.

NEW-YORK:

PRINTED FOR THOMAS KIRK, NO. 45. MAIDEN-LANE.

1805.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A In ADAM's Fall
We ſinned all.

B Heaven to find,
The Bible Mind.

C Chriſt crucify'd
For ſinners dy'd.

D The Deluge drown'd
The Earth around.

E ELIJAH hid
By Ravens fed.

F The judgment made
FELIX afraid.

G As runs the Glass,
Our Life doth paſs.

H My Book and Heart
Muſt never part.

I JOB feels the Rod,
Yet bleſſes GOD.

K Proud Korah's troop
Was ſwallowed up

L LOT fled to *Zoar*,
Saw fiery Shower
On *Sodom* pour.

M MOSES was he
Who *Iſrael's* Hoſt
Led thro' the Sea.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

An Easy Standard of Pronunciation.

A MORAL CATECHISM.

Question. *WHAT is moral virtue?*

Answer. It is an honest, upright conduct in all our dealings with men.

Q. *What rules have we to direct us in our moral conduct?*

A. God's word, contained in the bible, has furnished all necessary rules to direct our conduct.

Q. *In what part of the bible are these rules to be found?*

A. In almost every part: but the most important duties between men are summed up in the beginning of Matthew, in CHRIST's Sermon on the Mount.

OF HUMILITY.

Q. *What is humility?*

A. A lowly temper of mind.

Q. *What are the advantages of humility?*

A. The advantages of humility in this life are very numerous and great. The humble man has few or no enemies. Every one loves him, and is ready to do him good. If he is rich and prosperous, people do not envy him; if he is poor and unfortunate, every one pities him, and is disposed to alleviate his distresses.

Q. *What is pride?*

A. A lofty high-minded disposition.

Q. *Is pride commendable?*

A. By no means. A modest, self-approving opinion of our own good deeds is very right—it is natural—it is agreeable, and a spur to good actions. But we should not suffer our hearts to be blown up with pride, whatever great and good deeds we have done; for pride brings upon us the ill-will of mankind, and displeasure of our Maker.

Q. *What effect has humility upon our own minds?*

A. Humility is attended with peace of mind and self-satisfaction. The humble man is not disturbed with cross accidents, and is never fretful and uneasy; nor does he repine when others grow rich. He is contented, because his mind is at ease.

Q. *What is the effect of pride on a man's happiness?*

A. Pride exposes a man to numberless disappoint-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Lesson LI.

puss back hurt yarn
fuss Pont hide Frank

Puss, what a fuss you do make!
Put down your back. Pont will not hurt you, nor your kits.
See them run, and try to hide.
One of the kits has got fast in the yarn, and can not get out.
Frank, take the band off from Pont's eyes. The cats do not like the fun as well as you.

Portrait of Penn.

Washington.

Arnold.

You can now read all the lessons in it, and can write them on your slates.

Have you taken good care of your book? Children should always keep their books neat and clean.

Are you not glad to be ready for a new book?

Your parents are very kind to send you to school. If you are good, and if you try to learn, your teacher will love you, and you will please your parents.

Be kind to all, and do not waste your time in school.

When you go home, you may ask your parents to get you a Second Reader.